the basic taste modalities is mediated by distinct TRCs, with taste at the periphery proposed to be encoded via labeled lines [i.e., a sweet line, a sour line, a bitter line, etc. (21)]. Given that Car4 is specifically tethered to the surface of sour-sensing cells, and thus ideally poised to provide a highly localized acid signal to the sour TRCs, we reasoned that carbonation might be sensed through activation of the sour-labeled line. A prediction of this postulate is that prevention of sour cell activation should eliminate CO2 detection, even in the presence of wild-type Car4 function. To test this hypothesis, we engineered animals in which the activation of nerve fibers innervating sour-sensing cells was blocked by preventing neurotransmitter release from the PKD2L1-expressing TRCs. In essence, we transgenically targeted expression of tetanus toxin light chain [TeNT], an endopeptidase that removes an essential component of the synaptic machinery (34-36), to sour-sensing TRCs, and then monitored the physiological responses of these mice to sweet, sour, bitter, salty, umami and CO2 stimulation. As predicted, taste responses to sour stimuli were selectively and completely abolished, whereas responses to sweet, bitter, salty and umami tastants remained unaltered (Fig. 4 and fig. S5). However, these animals also displayed a complete loss of taste responses to CO2 even though they still expressed Car4 on the surface of PKD2L1 cells. Together, these results implicate the extracellular generation of protons, rather than intracellular acidification (15), as the primary signal that mediates the taste of CO2, and demonstrate that sour cells not only provide the membrane anchor for Car4 but also serve as the cellular sensors for carbonation.

Why do animals need CO2 sensing? CO2 detection could have evolved as a mechanism to recognize CO2-producing sources (18, 37)—for instance, to avoid fermenting foods. This view would be consistent with the recent discovery of a specialized CO2 taste detection in insects where it mediates robust innate taste behaviors (38). Alternatively, Car4 may be important to maintain the pH balance within taste buds, and might gratuitously function as a detector for carbonation only as an accidental consequence. Although CO2 activates the sour-sensing cells, it does not simply taste sour to humans. CO2 (like acid) acts not only on the taste system but also in other orosensory pathways, including robust stimulation of the somatosensory system (17, 22); thus, the final percept of carbonation is likely to be a combination of multiple sensory inputs. Nonetheless, the “fizz” and “tingle” of heavily carbonated water is often likened to mild acid stimulation of the tongue, and in some cultures seltzer is even named for its salient sour taste (e.g., sauer Sprudel or Sauerwasser).

References and Notes

4. E. Adler et al., Cell 100, 693 (2000).
5. J. Chandrashekar et al., Cell 100, 703 (2000).
39. We thank Guo and A. Becker for generation and maintenance of mouse lines, M. Hoan for help in the initial phase of this work, E. R. Swenson for a generous gift of benzolamide, M. Goulding for Rosa26-flox-STOP-TeNT mice, A. Waheed for Car4 antibodies, and members of the Zuker laboratory for valuable comments.
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Sequential Processing of Lexical, Grammatical, and Phonological Information Within Broca’s Area

Ned T. Sahin,1,2,6 Steven Pinker,2 Sydney S. Cash,3 Donald Schomer,4 Eric Halgren1

Words, grammar, and phonology are linguistically distinct, yet their neural substrates are difficult to distinguish in macroscopic brain regions. We investigated whether they can be separated in time and space at the circuit level using intracranial electrophysiology (ICE), namely by recording local field potentials from populations of neurons using electrodes implanted in language-related brain regions while people read words verbatically or grammatically inflected them (present/past or singular/plural). Neighboring probes within Broca’s area revealed distinct neuronal activity for lexical (~200 milliseconds), grammatical (~320 milliseconds), and phonological (~450 milliseconds) processing, identically for nouns and verbs, in a region activated in the same patients and task in functional magnetic resonance imaging. This suggests that a linguistic processing sequence predicted on computational grounds is implemented in the brain in fine-grained spatiotemporally patterned activity.

Within cognitive neuroscience, language is understood far less well than sensation, memory, or motor control, because language has no animal homologs, and methods appropriate to humans [functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), studies of braindamaged patients, and scalp-recorded potentials]

are far coarser in space or time than the underlying causal events in neural circuitry. Moreover, language involves several kinds of abstract information (lexical, grammatical, and phonological) that are difficult to manipulate independently. This has left a gap in understanding between the computational structure of language suggested by linguistics and the neural circuitry that implements language processing. We narrow this gap using a technique with high spatial, temporal, and physiological resolution and a task that distinguishes three components of linguistic computation.

According to linguistic analyses, the ability to identify words, combine them grammatically, and articulate their sounds involves several kinds of

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1Department of Radiology, University of California–San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92037, USA. 2Department of Psychology, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA. 3Department of Neurology, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA 02114, USA. 4Department of Neurology, Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Boston, MA 02215, USA.

*To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: sahin@post.harvard.edu

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representations, with logical dependencies among them (1, 2). For example, to pronounce a verb in a sentence, one must determine the appropriate tense given the intended meaning and syntactic context (e.g., “walk,” “walks,” “walked,” or “walking”). One must identify the particular verb, which specifies whether to use a regular (e.g., “walked”) or irregular (e.g., “went”) form. In addition, one must unpack the phonological content of the verb and suffix to implement three more computational adjustments in the pronunciation of the phonemes (e.g., inserting a vowel between verb and suffix in “patted” but not in “walked”), phonetic adjustments in the pronunciation of the phonemes (such as the difference between the “d” in “walked” and “jogged”), and conversion of the phoneme sequence into articulatory motor commands.

This logical decomposition does not entail that each kind of representation corresponds to a distinct stage or circuit in the brain. In many neural-network models, the selection of tense, discrimination of regular from irregular inflection, and formulation of the phonetic output are computed in parallel and in one time-step within a single distributed network (3, 4). Others contain loops and feedback connections, propagate probabilistic constraints, and iteratively settle into a globally stable state, with no fixed sequence of operations (5). Even stage models may incorporate cascades where partial information from one stage begins to feed the next before its computation is complete (6). Nonetheless, the most comprehensive model of speech production, developed by Levelt, Roelofs, and Meyer (LRM), maximizes parsimony and falsifiability by implementing linguistic operations as discrete ordered stages, eschewing feedback, loops, parallelism, or cascades (7).

Current evidence, however, leaves considerable uncertainty about the localization and timing of these components, especially grammatical processing. Although clinical studies report double dissociations in which a patient is more impaired in grammar than phonology or vice versa (10), in most studies both abilities are linked to similar regions in the left inferior prefrontal cortex, particularly Broca’s area (11). Although Broca’s area itself has been identified as the seat of phonology, grammar, and even specific grammatical operations (12–14), lesion and neuroimaging

**Fig. 1.** Experimental design. (A) Structure of trials. (B) Experimental conditions, example trials, and required psycholinguistic processes. (C) Hypothesized patterns of neural activity by condition, for inflectional and phonological processing.

**Fig. 2.** (A) Main results: sequential processing of lexical, grammatical, and phonological information in overlapping circuits. (Top) Neural activity recorded from several channels in Broca’s area (patient A, Brodmann area 45) shows three LFP components that were consistently evoked by the task (~200, ~320, and ~450 ms). (Bottom) The ~200-ms component is sensitive to word frequency but not word length, suggesting that it indexes a cognitive process such as lexical identification, not simply perception. Stacked waveforms (top and bottom) adopt the axes noted on the first waveform. (B) At ~320 ms, the LFP pattern suggests inflectional processing. (C) At ~450 ms, in a channel 5 mm distant, the complementary pattern suggests phonological processing. (Inset) MRI slices from this patient, annotated with the anatomical location of A4, the contact in common to the two channels reported here. Statistical significance: **** (P < .0001), *** (P < .001), ** (P < .01), * (P < .05) (t test, one tail, two-sample, equal variance). Box arrows (bottom) indicate linguistic processing stages, which may be interposed among other stages not addressed here.
The studies have tied it to a broad variety of linguistic and nonlinguistic processes (15). This uncertainty may be a consequence of the coarseness of current measurements. It remains possible that grammatical and other linguistic processes are processed distinctly, even sequentially, in the microcircuitry of the brain, but techniques that sum over seconds and centimeters necessarily blur them.

In a rare procedure, electrodes are implanted in the brains of patients with epilepsy for clinical evaluation. Recordings of intracranial electrophysiology (ICE) from unaffected brain tissue during periods of normal activity can provide millisecond resolution in time with millimeter resolution in space. We recorded local field potentials (LFP) from multicount depth electrodes in three right-handed patients (ages 38 to 51, with above-average language and cognitive skills) whose electrodes were located in and around Broca’s area while they read words verbatically or converted them to an inflected form (past/present or singular/plural) (Figs. 1 and 2) (16). The task engages inflectional morphology, which is like syntax in combining meaningful elements according to grammatical rules, but the units are shorter and semantically simpler, making fewer demands on working memory and conceptual integration, and thus allowing greater experimental control.

We applied the high resolution of ICE to a task that distinguishes three linguistic processes to investigate the spatiotemporal patterning of word production in the brain.

In each trial, participants saw either the instruction “Repeat word” (the “Read” condition) or a cue that dictated an inflected form (“Every day they _______; “Yesterday they _______; “That is a _______”; “Those are the _______”). Next, they saw a target word and produced the appropriate form silently (Fig. 1A) (16). The 240 target words were presented in uninflected form in the phrase “a [noun]” or “to [verb]” (17) (Fig. 1B). Half the targets were regular (e.g., “link”/“linked”) and half irregular (e.g., “think”/“thought”), to ensure that participants had to access the word rather than automatically appending the regular suffix (18).

The Null-Inflect (N) condition requires an inflected form of the verb (present tense) or noun (singular), yet these forms are not overtly marked and thus require the same output to be pronounced as in the Read (R) condition. The difference between these conditions thus implicates the process of inflection. In contrast, the Overt-Inflect (O) condition (past-tense verb or plural noun) requires that a suffix be added (regular) or the form changed (irregular). It thus differs from the Null-Inflect condition in requiring computation of a different phonological output (Fig. 1B). (The label “phonological” subsumes phonological, phonetic, and articulatory processes.) The design was fully crossed, with trials presented in pseudorandom order.

To assess whether these patients’ language systems were organized normally, and to correlate LFP with fMRI, we performed fMRI in two of the patients before their electrodes were placed. Their activation patterns were indeed similar to 18 healthy controls (Fig. 3, A to C) [for other fMRI results, see (19)]. Most of the 168 bipolar channels from which we recorded (across patients) were in fMRI-active regions (Fig. 3, A to G). LFP that was significantly correlated with the task (P < .001, corrected) (see (16)) was recorded in about half (86 of 168) of the channels (19 channels in
patient A, 37 in B, and 30 in C). Of these channels, 49 (57%) were within Broca’s area or the anterior temporal lobes (16 in patient A, 19 in B, 14 in C). Of the 49 channels, 26 were within Broca’s area, and the majority (20 of 26) yielded a strong triphasic (three-component) LFP waveform (9 in patient A, 8 in B, 3 in C). The mean peaks occurred ~200, ~320, and ~450 ms after the target word onset (Fig. 2A), and this timing was consistent across patients (Fig. 4, A and B, and figs. S1, S4, and S5).

The three LFP components showed signatures of distinct linguistic processing stages (Fig. 2, A to C). The ~200-ms component appears to reflect lexical identification. The timing converges with when word-specific activity has previously been recorded in the visual word form area (VWFA) [(20, 21), but see (22)] and when the VWFA has been shown to become phase-locked with Broca’s area (23). Furthermore, the magnitude of the component varied with word frequency, which indexes lexical access (24). Specifically, rare words (frequency 1 to 4) yielded a significantly higher amplitude (n(204) = 3.32, P < 0.001) than common words (frequency 9 to 12) (Fig. 2A) (25). Word frequency is inversely correlated with word length, but the present effect is not a consequence of length: We found no difference at ~200 ms between short (2 to 4 characters) and long (6 to 11 characters) words (Fig. 2A), nor a difference between one-morpheme and two-morpheme responses (26). Later components were not affected by frequency. Finally, consistent with the fact that lexical identification is required by all three inflectional conditions, the ~200-ms component did not vary across them. Primary lexical access is generally associated with temporal cortex rather than Broca’s area (8), so this component may index delivery of word identity information into Broca’s area for subsequent processing, consistent with anatomic and physiological evidence that the two areas are integrated (23, 27).

Although word-evoked activity in this latency range has previously been localized to Broca’s area with LFP (28) and magnetoencephalography (29), it has not been demonstrated to be modulated by lexical frequency.

The subsequent two LFP components showed activity patterns predicted for grammatical and phonological processing, respectively (Fig. 2, B and C). In the ~320-ms component (Fig. 2B), the Overt-Inflect and Null-Inflect conditions significantly differed from the Read condition but not from each other. Thus, the ~320-ms component is modulated by the demands of inflection (required by Overt-Inflect and Null-Inflect but not Read), but not by the demands of phonological programming (required in Overt-Inflect but not in Null-Inflect or Read; see Fig. 1C). In contrast, in a component appearing at ~450 ms, Overt-Inflect did differ from the Null-Inflect and Read conditions, which did not differ from each other (Fig. 2C). This contrasting pattern indicates that the ~450-ms component reflects phonological, phonetic, and articulatory programming, independently confirmed by its sensitivity to the number of syllables (Fig. 4C). Both components were recorded from Broca’s area in all patients (fig. S1), and specifically in patient A (Fig. 2) from the inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) pars triangularis deep in the inferior frontal sulcus. The ~320-ms component was recorded near the fundus; the ~450-ms component was recorded 5 mm more lateral along the sulcus within a subgyral fold that faced the fundus (Fig. 3I and fig. S1A). This region is often considered part of area 45 [but see (30)].

The pattern of sign inversions across neighboring bipolar channels in space (Fig. 2A, top) indicates that the generators of the LFP components were local (fig. S3), and the differences in inversions across components in time indicate that their generators were not identical (Fig. 3, I and J). Thus, the overall LFP pattern suggests a fine-grain spatiotemporal progression of lexical, grammatical, and phonological processing within Broca’s area during word production.

The triphasic pattern in all patients was found exclusively in Broca’s area (Fig. 4A). Outside Broca’s area, other patterns prevailed; for example, temporal lobe sites showed a slow and late monophasic component at 500 to 600 ms (Fig. 4A, bottom, and fig. S4, F and G) (31), possibly reflecting self-monitoring (7, 8). The condition differences for each component were also consistent across patients, replicating the temporal isolation of grammatical (~320 ms) from phonological (~450 ms) processing (fig. S1). The word-frequency effect on the ~200-ms component was significant in patients A and B and marginal (P = 0.06) in patient C (fig. S2). The ~200-, ~320-, and ~450-ms components were consistent in their timing across patients, although thekeypress reaction times, which require the self-monitoring process, varied among patients and conditions (fig. S6).

Although nouns and verbs differ linguistically and neurobiologically (32, 33), the neuronal activity they evoked was similar (Fig. 4B). Furthermore, the patterning across inflectional conditions was the same for nouns and verbs (34). These parallels suggest that words from different lexical classes feed a common process for inflection.

Additional evidence that the LFP patterns reflect inflectional computation is that they are triggered by presentation of the target word, not the cue, even though the cues contain more visual and linguistic elements (Fig. 4D) (35). Furthermore, activity evoked by the cue showed little sensitivity to the inflectional conditions.

The LFP patterns are consistent with the computational nature of the task and with independent estimates of the timing of its subprocesses. Inflectional processing cannot occur before the word...
Cortical information processing is under state-dependent control of subcortical neuromodulatory systems. Although this modulatory effect is thought to be mediated mainly by slow nonsynaptic metabotropic receptors, other mechanisms, such as direct synaptic transmission, are possible. Yet, it is currently unknown if any such form of subcortical control exists. Here, we present direct evidence of a strong, spatiotemporally precise excitatory input from an ascending neuromodulatory center. Selective stimulation of serotonergic median raphe neurons produced a rapid activation of hippocampal interneurons. At the network level, this subcortical drive was manifested as a pattern of effective disynaptic GABAergic inhibition that spread throughout the circuit. This form of subcortical network regulation should be incorporated into current concepts of normal and pathological cortical function.

Fast Synaptic Subcortical Control of Hippocampal Circuits

Viktor Varga,1,† Attila Losonczy,2,†‡ Boris V. Zemelman,2 Zsolt Borhegyi,1 Gábor Nyiri,1 Andor Domonkos,3 Balázs Hangya,4 Noémi Holderith,3 Jeffrey C. Magee,2 Tamás Freund1

SUBCORTICAL monoaminergic systems are thought to modulate target cortical networks on a slow time scale of hundreds of milliseconds to seconds corresponding to the duration of metabotropic receptor signaling (1). Among these ascending systems, the serotonergic raphe-hippocampal (RH) pathway that primarily originates within the midbrain median raphe nucleus (MnR) is a key modulator of hippocampal mnemonic functions (2). Contrary to the slow modulatory effect commonly associated with ascending systems, electrical stimulation of the RH pathway produces a rapid and robust modulation of hippocampal electroencephalographic activity (3–5). Analomous evidence shows that MnR projections form some classical synapses onto GABAergic interneurons (INs) in the hippocampus (6), potentially providing a substrate for a fast neuromodulation of the hippocampal circuit. Recent reports of the presence of glutamate

References and Notes

11. We use “Broca’s area” to denote the left IFG pars opercularis and pars triangularis (classically, Brodmann areas 44 and 45, but see (30)).

16. Materials and methods are available as supporting material on Science Online.
17. The context words (“a” and “the”) prevented participants from simply concatenating the cue and target (a strategy that would succeed in two-thirds of the trials) and helped equalize difficulty across conditions.
18. Differences in the signals between regular and irregular verbs are not analyzed here (for discussion, see (19)).
25. Frequency score was the rounded natural log of the combined frequencies of all inflectional forms of a word, plus one.
26. These factors were largely independent. Word length correlated little with morpheme count (0.267) or frequency (~0.347).
31. This component may approximate the P600 component often recorded from the scalp (42), but comparisons are difficult because the P600 is generally elicited by errors, in comprehension rather than production experiments.
34. The exception was that, for nouns, the Overt-Read comparison at ~320 and the Overt-Null comparison at ~450 ms only approached significance ($P = 0.08$ and 0.06, respectively; one-tailed $t$ test).
35. We measured the average amplitude of the rectified all-conditions LFP in Broca’s area channels in all patients, in the 150- to 650-ms interval, embracing our components of interest. The response epoch had a higher amplitude than the cue epoch in most (20 of 26) channels, and across all channels was 99% greater. (Patient A yielded a higher amplitude in the response epoch in 7 of 10 channels, on average 71.7% higher; patient B in 7 of 10 channels (+33.6% on average); and patient C in 6 of 6 channels (+191.6% on average)).
38. LFP components reported here vary by amplitude but not latency or duration; evidently, the processes they index are consistently timed, and other processes [e.g., assembly and enactment of the articulatory plan (8)] produce the differences in response latency.
41. However, the fine-grained, within-gyrus localization reported here cannot easily be mapped onto the more macroscopic divisions suggested by these authors.
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Supporting Online Material

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Materials and Methods: Figs. S1 to S6

Table S1 and S2

References

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